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## Research:

### "Buy Versus Build": Debt Aspects of Purchased-Power Agreements

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Standard & Poor's Ratings Services views electric utility purchased-power agreements as debt-like in nature, and has historically capitalized these obligations on a scale known as a "risk spectrum." Standard & Poor's applies a 0% to 100% "risk factor"

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present value (NPV) of the PPA capacity payments, and designates this amount as equivalent.

While determination of the appropriate risk factor takes several variables into account, including the economics of the power and regulatory treatment, the overwhelming factor in selecting a risk factor has been a distinction in the likelihood of payment by the buyer. Specifically, Standard & Poor's has divided the PPA universe into two broad categories: take-or-pay contracts (TOP; hell or high water) and take-and-pay contracts (TAP; pay-if-available). To date, TAP contracts have been treated far more leniently (e.g., a 5% risk factor applied) than TOP contracts since failure of the seller to deliver energy, or payment by the buyer, is an attendant reduction in payment by the buyer. Thus, TAP contracts were deemed to be substantially less debt-like. In fact, the risk factor used for many TAP obligations has been as low as 5% or 10% as opposed to TOPs, which have been typically at least 50%.

Standard & Poor's originally published its purchased-power criteria in 1990, and updated them in 1993. Over the past decade, the industry underwent significant changes related to deregulation and acquired a history with regard to the performance and reliability of third-party generation. In general, independent generation has performed well; the likelihood of nonpayment or release from the payment obligation—is low. As a result, Standard & Poor's distinction between TOPs and TAPs is minimal, the result being that the risk factor for TAPs will become more stringent. This article reiterates Standard & Poor's views on purchased power as a fixed obligation, how to quantify this risk, and the credit ramifications of purchased power in light of updated observations.

## Why Capitalize PPAs?

Standard & Poor's evaluates the benefits and risks of purchased power by analyzing a utility's reported financial statements to allow for more meaningful comparisons with utilities that build generation. Utilities that build typically finance construction with debt and equity. A utility that leases a power plant has entered into a debt-like obligation; a capital lease appears on the utility's balance sheet as debt. A utility that enters into a long-term PPA with a fixed-price contract takes on financial risk. Furthermore, utilities are typically not financially compensated for the risks they assume in purchasing power, as purchased power is usually recorded on the balance sheet as an operating expense.

As electricity deregulation has progressed in some countries, states, and regions, the distinction between traditional utilities, vertically integrated utilities, and merchant companies, all of which are in the generation business. A common contract that has emerged is the tolling agreement, which gives an energy merchant company the right to purchase power from a specific power plant. (see "Evaluating Debt Aspects of Tolling Agreements," published Aug. 26, 2002). The energy merchant, or tolling agent, is responsible for procuring and delivering gas to the plant when it wants the power. The power plant operator must maintain plant availability and produce power at a contractual heat rate. Thus, tolling contracts exhibit characteristics of both debt and equity. However, tollers are typically unregulated entities competing in a competitive marketplace. Standard & Poor's has determined that a 70% risk factor should be applied to the NPV of the fixed tolling payments, reflecting its assessment of the risks associated with tolling, which are:

- Fixed payments that cover debt financing of power plant (typically about 70%),
- Commodity price of inputs,
- Energy sales (price and volume), and
- Counterparty risk.

### Determining the Risk Factor for PPAs

Alternatively, most entities entering into long-term PPAs, as an alternative owning power plants, continue to be regulated utilities. Observations over a high likelihood of performance on TAP commitments and, thus, the high likelihood that utilities must make fixed payments. However, Standard & Poor's believes that vertically integrated, regulated utilities are afforded greater protection in the recovery of fixed tolling charges by merchant generator compared with the recovery of fixed tolling charges by merchant generator. Reasons for this. First, tariffs are typically set by regulators to recover costs. At a minimum, purchased power, similar to capital costs and fuel costs, is treated as a cost of service.

As a generic guideline for utilities with PPAs included as an operating expense in their tariffs, Standard & Poor's believes that a 50% risk factor is appropriate for PPAs with commitments (e.g. tenors greater than three years). This risk factor assumes regulatory treatment, including recognition of the PPA in tariffs; otherwise, a higher risk factor could be adopted to indicate greater risk of recovery. Standard & Poor's will apply a 50% risk factor to the capacity component of both TAP and TOP PPAs. When the capacity component is not broken out separately, we will assume that 50% of the PPA is for capacity payment. Furthermore, Standard & Poor's will take counterparty risk into account when considering the risk factor. If a utility relies on any individual seller for a significant portion of its energy needs, the risk of nondelivery will be assessed. To the extent that energy is not delivered, the utility will be exposed to replacing this power, at current market rates that could be higher than contracted rates and potentially not reflected in its tariffs.

Standard & Poor's continues to view the recovery of purchased-power costs through a cost adjustment clause, as opposed to base tariffs, as a material risk mitigant. A quarterly adjustment mechanism would ensure dollar-for-dollar recovery of costs without having to receive approval from regulators for changes in fuel costs. For utilities in supportive regulatory jurisdictions, a 30% risk factor could be used. For utilities in jurisdictions where precedent for timely and full cost recovery of fuel and purchased-power costs is not established, a risk factor of 10% to 20% for distribution utilities where recovery of certain stranded assets, has been legislated. Qualifying facilities that are blessed by federal legislation may also fall into this category. This situation would be rare for a utility that is transitioning from a vertically integrated to a disaggregated distribution company. Still, it is unlikely that no portion of a PPA would be capitalized (i.e., treated as equity) under any circumstances.

The previous scenarios address how purchased power is quantified for a vertically integrated utility with a bundled tariff. However, as the industry transitions to deregulation, various hybrid models have emerged. For example, a utility could create a deregulated merchant energy subsidiary, which buys power and off-sells it to the utility. The utility in turn passes this power through to customers via a fuel-cost pass-through mechanism. For the merchant entity, a 70% risk factor would likely be applied to its TAP or tolling scheme. But for the utility, a 30% risk factor would be used. What is the appropriate treatment here? In part, the decision would be driven by the methodology for the family of companies. Starting from a consolidated perspective, Standard & Poor's would use a 30% risk factor to calculate one debt equivalent for the consolidated balance sheet given that for the consolidated entity the risk of nonpayment would ultimately be through the utility's tariff. However, if the merchant energy company is deemed noncore and its rating was more a reflection of its stand-alone creditworthiness, Standard & Poor's would impute a debt equivalent using a 70% risk factor for the merchant entity, as well as a 30% risk-adjusted debt equivalent to the utility. Indeed, purchases would be reflected for both companies if there were no ownership split. This example is perhaps overly simplistic because there will be many variations.

theme. However, Standard & Poor's will apply this logic as a starting point, analysis case-by-case, commensurate with the risk to the various participants.

### Adjusting Financial Ratios

Standard & Poor's begins by taking the NPV of the annual capacity payments of the contract. The rationale for not capitalizing the energy component, even also a nondiscretionary fixed payment, is to equate the comparison between buy versus build—i.e., Standard & Poor's does not capitalize utility fuel contracts where the capacity and energy components of the fixed payment are not separable. The fixed payment is used as a proxy for the capacity payment. The discount rate to determine the debt equivalent, the NPV is multiplied by the risk factor. The result is added to a utility's reported debt to calculate adjusted debt. Similarly, Standard & Poor's imputes an associated interest expense equivalent of 10%—10% of the debt equivalent is added to reported interest expense to calculate adjusted interest coverage. The adjusted ratios include debt as a percentage of total capital, funds from operations pretax interest coverage, and FFO interest coverage. Clearly, the higher the discount rate, the greater the effect on adjusted financial ratios. When analyzing forecasts, the effect of PPA will typically decrease as the maturity of the contract approaches.

### Utility Company Example

To illustrate some of the financial adjustments, consider the simple example of a utility company, ABC Utility Co., buying power from XYZ Independent Power Co. Under the terms of the contract, payments made by ABC Utility start at \$90 million in 2003 and rise 5% per year until the contract's expiration in 2023. The NPV of these obligations over the life of the contract, discounted at 10%, is \$1.09 billion. In ABC's case, Standard & Poor's chose a risk factor of 1.2, which when multiplied by the obligation results in \$327 million. Table 1 shows the adjustment to ABC's capital structure, where the \$327 million debt equivalent is added to reported debt, causing ABC's total debt to capitalization to rise to 59% from 54% (Table 2 shows that ABC's pretax interest coverage was 2.6x, without adjusting for the XYZ capacity payments, the \$327 million adjustment is multiplied by a 10% interest rate to arrive at about \$33 million; this amount is added to both the numerator and the denominator, adjusted pretax interest coverage falls to 2.3x.

Table 1 ABC Utility Co. Adjustment to Capital Structure				
	Original capital structure		Adjusted capital structure	
	\$	%	\$	%
Debt	1,400	54	1,400	48
Adjustment to debt	-	-	327	11
Preferred stock	200	8	200	7
Common equity	1,000	38	1,000	34
Total capitalization	2,600	100	2,927	100

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Table 2 ABC Utility Co. Adjustment to Pretax Interest Coverage				
		Original pretax interest coverage (x)		Adjusted pretax interest coverage (x)
Net income	120			
Income taxes	65	300		(300 ÷ 33)

Interest expense	115	115	= 2.6x	(115+33)
Pretax available	300			

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### Credit Implications

The credit implications of the updated criteria are that Standard & Poor's historical risk factors applied to TAP contracts with favorable recovery mechanism were insufficient to capture the financial risk of these fixed obligations. Indeed, if where 5% and 10% risk factors were applied, the change in adjusted financial ratios (unadjusted) was negligible and had no effect on ratings. Standard & Poor's probability of energy delivery and attendant payment warrants recognition equivalent when capitalizing PPAs. Standard & Poor's will attempt to identify more vulnerable to modifications in purchased-power adjustments. Utilities financial adjustments by recognizing purchased power as a debt equivalent incorporating more common equity in their capital structures. However, Standard & Poor is aware that utilities have been reluctant to take this action because many regulators do not recognize the necessity for, and authorize a return on, this additional wedge of equity. Alternatively, regulators could authorize higher returns on existing equity to provide an incentive return mechanism for economic purchases. Notwithstanding unsupportive regulators, the burden will still fall on utilities to offset the financial risk associated with purchases by either qualitative or quantitative means.

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